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FOREIGN LABOR TRENDS REPORT

MOROCCO

1988 - 1989

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KEY LABOR INDICATORS

	1986	1987	% Change
1) Per capita GDP, curr.prices (US$)	650	829	12.7
2) Population, total (millions)	22.7	23.4	1.03
---, growth rate (%)	2.9	2.6	
---, urban concentration (%)	44.6	45.1	
3) Birth rate per 1000 pop.			37
4) Out-migration	8,750	6,342	-13.8
5) Life expectancy at birth*	N/A	60	
6) Adult literacy rate, male (1985)	45		
---, female (1985)	22		
7) Total labor force (millions)	7.7	8 (est)	4
8) Employment by sector			
--- Industry	N/A	28	
--- Agriculture/Mining	N/A	38	
--- Services	N/A	34	
9) Unemployment rate, urban (%)	15.6	14.7	
10) Work-related accidents or illnesses	N/A	11,487	-12.3
11) Work days lost, ind. disputes (000)	143	122	-11.7
12) Minimum wage rates			
-- Industrial (DH per hour)	3.93	4.32	11
-- Agricultural (DH per day)	20.32	22.35	11
13) Avg. hrly earnings (with benefits) industrial, DH			
-- Unskilled laborers (per hour)	4-4.7	N/A	
-- Semi-skilled laborers (per hr.)	6.9-7.3	N/A	
-- Skilled laborers (per hour)	8-9.7	N/A	
-- Technicians (per hour)	10.8-12.2	N/A	
-- Foremen (per month)	2057-2723	N/A	
-- Superv. & prof. (per mo.)	5445-9075	N/A	
14) Average hours worked/wk			
-- Public Sector	N/A	37.3	
-- Private Sector	N/A	44-48	
15) Unionization (% of work force)	13	12	
16) Change in consumer prices (%)	8	2.8	
17) Trade with U.S.			
--- Imports from U.S. ($ mill.)	432	388	-11%
--- Exports to U.S.	31	59	90

* World Bank estimate

All figures are in current prices except where otherwise indicated.

Average exchange rates: 1987 -- $1=DH 9.08
1988 -- $1=DH 8.36

Sources: Government of Morocco unless otherwise indicated.

ECONOMIC OVERVIEW

The political, economic, and social realities affecting Morocco's political climate are beyond the control of any single player on the labor front. Like other non-oil producing developing countries, Morocco in the early 1980s suddenly found its development plans derailed by greatly increased energy costs, high interest rates, and the slowdown in global trade. After several years of hardship, the country achieved good progress in 1988 thanks to plentiful rainfall which produced record harvests. At the same time, exports increased markedly. Boosted as well by worker remittances (though they declined by 20 percent from 1987), tourist receipts (up 14.6 percent), a 35 percent jump in exports of phosphates and phosphoric acid, and a spurt in textile exports, the country in 1988 achieved a real economic growth rate of over 8 percent. As a result, Morocco reduced its trade deficit to 9.81 billion DH (dirham), increased its net foreign exchange reserves, and further lowered its current account deficit (6.61 billion DH in 1987) to 4.2 percent of the gross domestic product (GDP).

These favorable circumstances notwithstanding, Morocco faces an uncertain economic future. The government has tackled its most pressing economic problems--high external debt and budget deficits--through debt rescheduling and budget-cutting. Having generally met International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank requirements, Morocco in 1988 negotiated a new IMF standby agreement and another Paris Club rescheduling. Rescheduling talks with commercial bank creditors were set for 1989. To foster revenues and industrial growth, the government favors expanding private domestic and foreign investment.

Privatization of most state enterprises remains a government objective, with debate expected to resume soon in parliament over a privatization bill. The prospect of privatization has led to wariness by Moroccan labor, which supports economic liberalization in principle. Labor fears that implementation of privatization will lead to loss of jobs as happened in 1987 when 1,000 employees of the national export office suddenly found themselves unemployed as a result of removal of its monopoly control of agricultural exports. In his April 1988 speech to open parliament, King Hassan II said that privatization would be "employment neutral" and that individuals who purchased state assets must avoid massive layoffs.

EMPLOYMENT

Agriculture and mining still provide the greatest share of employment for Moroccan workers (38 percent), followed by services (34 percent), and industry (28 percent), although the

latter two have been gaining a larger share each year. With population growth at an estimated 3 percent per year, half the population of 24 million is now under age 20. About 46 percent live in urban areas. An estimated 8 1/2 million Moroccans form the labor force, of whom over 1 million are organized. Over 20 percent of the work force is female. The state employs about 700,000 people, including members of the armed forces, at the national and local levels.

Unemployment, job preservation, and training rank high among pressing issues on the Moroccan labor agenda. The Ministry of Employment reports overall unemployment in 1987 at 14.7 percent, with higher estimates for 1988. Estimates for youth and urban unemployment reach even higher (20-25 percent), especially in Morocco's largest city Casablanca (pop. est. 4 million). An unknown number of Moroccans work in the informal sector, often in part-time jobs. The public perception of prosperity has intensified pressures on the government to cut back on austerity in favor of public spending to increase employment opportunities.

Under Moroccan law, companies wishing to hire workers register at the office of the local labor delegate from the Ministry of Labor. Workers seeking jobs sign up at the same offices. The Ain-Sebaa industrial region of Casablanca has the highest concentration of labor activity in Morocco. In 1988, 6,500 companies employed some 400,000 workers. Job losses ensuing from company closures were more than offset by establishment of over 50 new companies, most in the burgeoning textiles sector. The textiles firms employed domestic labor to produce exported goods, using imported materials. Yet, the new employment opportunities fell short of demand for jobs by nearly one thousand.

About 1 million Moroccans live and work abroad. About half of these are in France (ca. 600,000), with large numbers in Belgium (150,000), and the Netherlands (140,000). Moroccans live elsewhere in Western Europe, notably Spain, West Germany, and Italy. The imminent tightening up of visa procedures by Spain has aroused some local protest. Other Moroccan workers are employed in Libya (23,000), Saudi Arabia (11,000), Tunisia, and the Gulf. About half the Moroccans in Europe are dependent family members or students. Families only rarely accompany Moroccan workers to other Arab countries.

Recession and unemployment in Europe and the economic downturn in oil-producing states have reduced the demand for Moroccan labor in recent years. Emigration through employment contracts negotiated with other countries by the Moroccan government declined from 8,750 in 1986 to 6,342 in 1987, bringing the 2-year decline to over 50 percent. With their

customary "safety valves" cut off or limited, Moroccans began returning home. Young Moroccans in 1988 also turned increasingly to the United States for visitor and student visas in hopes of gaining entry in order to work. The 20 percent decline in 1988 remittances from Moroccans working abroad arises from the overall decline in their numbers, although some of the remittance drop may be attributable to new laws allowing workers to import more goods when returning home and to a lack of attractive investment opportunities in Morocco. Because transfers form such a crucial component of foreign exchange, Morocco makes a special effort to welcome overseas workers who vacation at home each year.

Unemployment and underemployment constitute serious and growing problems in Morocco. Adding underemployment, the national figure for the 2 combined could surpass 30 percent. Aggravated in recent years by an influx of migrants from the countryside, urban unemployment eased somewhat because of beneficial rains in 1986 and 1988. As for the unknown number of Moroccans working in the informal sector, they are of increasing interest to government labor experts; they are unprotected by Moroccan labor law and much less likely to earn minimum wages. The Moroccan government has recently embarked on several programs to meet special needs. A new workers' training institute is fully operational in Casablanca, and a special program has been set up to provide jobs for youth from the Moroccan-controlled Western Sahara.

THE WORKING ENVIRONMENT

Moroccan labor law and custom are derived from French law, which offers many safeguards and benefits for workers. Salary, only part of the total wage and benefit package, is paid for a minimum of 13 months. Some companies pay as much as 16 months' salary for a 12-month year. The minimum industrial wage (SMIG) was 4.32 DH/hour (54 cents) in 1988 and rose to 4.75 DH in January 1989. Workers can expect to receive living allowances, transportation, meals free or at low cost, medical insurance, school allowances, vacation supplements, bonuses or sheep for major Muslim feasts, employer-provided parties, and trips for the Muslim pilgrimage to the holy cities in Saudi Arabia. Industrial employees are entitled to percentage increases based on seniority: 5 percent after 2 years, 10 percent after 5, 15 percent after 12, and 20 percent after 20. Agricultural laborers earned daily rates (SMAG) of 22.35 DH in 1988, increased to 24.70 DH in 1989. Prices for government-subsidized products also remained stable in 1988. The 1988 World Bank Atlas listed Morocco's per capita income as $620 (1987).

The maximum Moroccan workweek is set at 48 hours. Moroccan private sector workers, according to 1987 Ministry of Labor figures, averaged 37 hours per week, compared to 44-48 hours for public sector workers. Those figures exclude overtime performed by many workers, usually for increased hourly pay. Moroccan labor law forbids child employment below the age of 12 and restricts night hours for working women and minors. Special laws govern employment of children between the ages of 12 and 16. In the traditional economy, however, children may be apprenticed earlier than age 12. Safety and health conditions in many enterprises employing children are substandard. Labor inspectors have difficulty ensuring application of child labor laws.

Factories with growing business which wish to protect proprietary information, for example in the expanding textiles sector, ask workers to stay 60 hours a week rather than hire temporaries who might give secrets to rival enterprises. More common is the factory with declining business which wants to dismiss workers but cannot because of legal restrictions. These often place workers on 1-hour per week pay, since there is no minimum under Moroccan labor law, rather than try to fire them. Recent cases exist where workers demanded pay from enterprises which had ceased to function and were in bankruptcy. The "lockout" is an increasingly common phenomenon around the country.

As a rule, Moroccan companies give workers the following statutory holidays: March 3 (Fete du Throne), May 1 (Labor Day), 2 days for Eid al-Fitr (end of Ramadan), May 23 (National Day), July 9 (King's Birthday), 2 days for Eid al-Adha (month of the Pilgrimage), Muslim New Year, August 14 (Ouad al-Dhahab), Prophet's Birthday, November 6 (Green March Day), November 18 (Independence Day). Dates for Muslim holidays change annually according to the lunar calendar. Many businesses also close on January 1. Workers asked to perform duties on holidays expect alternative days off.

WOMEN IN THE WORKPLACE

Women constitute an increasingly important segment of the Moroccan urban work force and remain vital in the rural setting where they work long hours. The numbers of women employed in the professions are growing as more and more women complete secondary school and university. Economic exigencies are placing poorer women in the industrial setting with greater frequency as well. The availability of domestic help either from family or paid servants in Morocco facilitates careers outside the home for working women.

Although Morocco as yet has no female cabinet members or parliamentarians, women occupy positions of responsibility and importance in government ministries, education, and increasingly in industry. In 1988, Aziza Bennani, a literature professor appointed Dean of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Hassan II University in Mohammedia, became the first female in Morocco to head a university faculty. The deputy deans at Hassan II's Faculty of Dentistry in Casablanca are also women. More women are entering university teaching and are especially visible at Hassan II University's Ben M'sik Faculty of Arts. Female professors interviewed in local newspapers have cited university teaching as a comfortable career for women as it allows them sufficient time for their children and spouses. The newer universities are most likely to hire women. Women also fill teaching positions at lower levels, but their numbers are small, given the overall low literacy rate among Moroccan women.

Moroccan women have found a niche in personnel, social services, and sociology, and they write frankly in the media about their experiences. Women head divisions in Casablanca hospitals and in the National Social Security Fund (CNSS). The social administration apparatus of the electricity company, one of the large government parastatals, has a female chief. The personnel director at Royal Air Maroc, the national airline, is female. One woman who consulted for government ministries and private companies has now branched out on her own to head a management consulting firm.

Women today occupy key managerial roles in business, especially the family enterprises which dominate the Moroccan scene, from shipping companies to textile manufacturers to printing firms. Male company heads may prefer bringing a capable daughter into the business to handing it over to a reluctant or less able son. Women can occupy high posts in non-family firms, but they may find themselves alone at the top, and unmarried at an age when most women would already have children. Female entrepreneurs have entered the business field, often as a second job. Teachers, for example, may open a dress shop on the side. Large textile firms are as likely to employ female designers as males.

In Moroccan as in American industry, women dominate the clerical jobs. On the manufacturing side, across the industrial spectrum, from detergent factories to textiles, managers prefer women for quality control and precision tasks. Women are chosen as packers and inspectors for small items such as razors. Embroidery factories employ women to sew borders on machine-embroidered curtains and ensure proper finishing. Other women check the final product before packing. Women dominate the operation of sewing machines in the textile

industry as a whole, including the underground factories where enforcement of labor standards is lax. Reportedly, women are willing to work long hours to gain added income. Some factories employ only single women but others take women with families, too.

Many Moroccan women are finding work in the services sector, especially tourism. They range from tour agency managers and hotel accountants to maids and waitresses. New hotels are besieged with job applicants. Females, especially young women, may take jobs as domestic servants in private homes, hoping eventually to find something better. However, they most often earn minimal wages and reside in the homes of their employers.

SOCIAL PROGRAMS

The cornerstone of social welfare programs in Morocco is the National Social Security Fund (CNSS), established in 1961. It provides social benefits to more than 500,000 workers in over 36,000 enterprises in the private sector, including industry, commerce, agriculture, and the professions. (Government workers have their own pension and insurance system.) CNSS is administered by a tripartite committee composed of government, management, and trade union representatives. Employers and employees provide the bulk of fund monies. The Ministry of Health took charge of CNSS recently, and the system is in flux.

CNSS provides payments for disability, survivors' and old age pensions, and benefits for sickness, maternity leave, and death. It also covers occupational diseases or accidents not covered by workers' compensation. (Under Moroccan law, workers' compensation is paid only if employers choose to obtain private liability insurance.) CNSS also pays family allowances for up to six children per family. For some years, this allowance was frozen at 36 dirhams per child. The 1988 budget provided a 50 percent increase but limited benefits to three children per family.

At concessional rates, CNSS members can use the modern "polycliniques" (hospitals), of which 13 operate country-wide. In addition, it has a number of mobile x-ray units. CNSS devotes surplus funds to low-cost housing--individual, duplex, and cooperative--for more than 12,000 families. It operates summer camps each year for over 1,500 children of Moroccans working abroad.

The Inter-Professional Retirement Fund (CIMR) is designed for higher-paid skilled workers and office employees. Unlike CNSS, CIMR has no limit on the salary on which contributions can be paid.

Various mutual benefit societies provide health insurance to workers and their families. As of 1986, 25 such societies were active in the public, semi-public, and private sectors, covering more than 650,000 subscribers. The mutual benefit societies operate on a nonprofit basis, funded through employer/employee contributions.

Employers by law must provide medical services in the workplace in all establishments with more than 50 workers. For enterprises with fewer than 50 employees, medical care is obligatory if the work performed is considered particularly hazardous to workers' health. In 1985, over 250,000 were covered by these services in more than 900 establishments.

Morocco lacks unemployment insurance. Under the law, however, employers must pay terminated workers an indemnity based on length of service.

THE LABOR SCENE

Once strong and politically influential, the Moroccan labor movement is now fragmented and lacks the political clout it carried over 30 years ago when it helped lead the country to independence. Nevertheless, as a large organized force, it retains the potential to influence political life.

Three major trade union federations and several smaller ones constitute Moroccan organized labor. The three giants--the Moroccan Federation of Labor (UMT), the Democratic Confederation of Labor (CDT), and General Union of Moroccan Workers (UGTM)--profess and practice democratic principles, and all have national constituencies. In 1988, the CDT (affiliated with the Socialist Union of Popular Forces (USFP) and UGTM (affiliated with the nationalist Istiqlal Party) cooperated from time to time to increase their influence vis-a-vis the non-affiliated UMT, the country's premier labor federation. Present union strength is estimated at 350,000-400,000 for the UMT, 350,000 for the CDT, and 300,000 for the UGTM, though the federations themselves often count non-dues-paying individuals, who nevertheless cooperate with their activities, as members.

The structure of union organization in Morocco makes it possible for more than one federation to unionize workers in a particular workplace. Thus, in the port of Casablanca, the UMT and UGTM split worker representation about fifty-fifty. Workers for the large parastatal airline, Royal Air Maroc, are divided between the UMT and CDT. At the national coal mines in Jerada, the CDT represented the bulk of the workers, but a small number belonged to the UGTM. Thus, the government ended up signing an agreement with those two federations. This union pluralism creates a competitive environment for the

federations, each of which tries to show workers that it can achieve a better deal for them. As federations from two opposition parties, the CDT and UGTM are now combining forces to gain support for their respective parties preparatory to elections scheduled for 1990.

In Morocco's unicameral parliament, two-thirds of the members are elected by direct suffrage and one-third indirectly by commercial councils, professional organizations, and unions. In the current 306-member parliament, 10 seats are reserved for worker representatives, on a proportional basis. Trade union members can also run individually for direct-election seats, but the UMT boycotted the last two direct elections on the basis that conditions for truly democratic suffrage do not exist. In the 1984 parliamentary election, five direct-election seats went to Moroccans living abroad, largely "guest workers", who voted at Moroccan consulates and embassies.

Mahjoub Ben Seddik, Morocco's most influential and long-standing labor leader, has served as UMT Secretary-General since 1955. Despite loss of political weight, the UMT remains the strongest national labor influence and heads Morocco's labor delegations to international meetings. Its affiliates cover the labor spectrum, from heavy industry to the public sector. More experienced than its rivals in handling bread-and-butter issues, the UMT has also been innovative in the social welfare field. UMT Deputy Secretary-General Mohamed Abderrazak played a major role in building the National Social Security Administration. Abdelkader Awab is active in the Arab Labour Organization. Five UMT members serve in parliament.

The CDT, led by Secretary-General Noubir Amaoui, derives its strength from public sector enterprises and has the most militant public image. During the CDT's brief but turbulent history (since its creation in 1978), the government has frequently cracked down on it, imprisoning its leadership on several occasions. In 1981, the CDT took the blame for riots in Casablanca that ensued from a CDT general strike. CDT now pursues an activist, but pragmatic approach. It occupied center stage late in 1988, fighting successfully for better working conditions and higher salaries and benefits at the government-owned mines in Jerada. The CDT has three parliamentary deputies.

The UGTM broke away from the UMT in 1960. It is active among agricultural workers but also has support in the public and private sectors. Secretary-General Abderrazak Afilal travels around the country regularly to keep in touch with UGTM members and promote union solidarity. He is one of two UGTM representatives in parliament and also heads one of Casablanca's urban communes.

All union federations celebrate Labor Day (May 1) with rallies and demonstrations in major cities. The May 1988 celebration coincided with the fasting month of Ramadan. Speeches emphasized Moroccan solidarity with the Palestinian intifada more than problems of local workers. Attendance was higher than in 1987.

The Moroccan labor scene is characterized by numerous disputes which usually begin with presentation by workers of demands and end with work slowdowns or strikes. The disputes can arise over wages, working conditions, dismissals or other disciplinary actions, or lockouts caused by industry slowdowns. Many strikes are called for one day or even for several hours only, as "advertisement" strikes to highlight demands presented earlier or signal a breakdown in negotiations. Often, they underscore efforts of one federation to outshine its rivals. The government alone in 1988 faced protests from Ministry of Agriculture workers, railway workers, phosphate workers, airline workers, national petroleum research office workers, salt mine workers, and coal miners. In 1987 (most recent available figures), the Ministry of Labor estimated workdays lost from industrial disputes at 122,068, a decline from 142,746 in 1986.

Despite frequent strikes, all federations aim for dialogue rather than confrontation in labor disputes. Workers acknowledge need to preserve jobs in a labor-abundant economy. They want to protect gains achieved already and improve health and safety conditions. Salary demands of 20 percent or more often translate into acceptance of 5 percent salary increases.

Major disputes, though not necessarily strikes, took place mainly in the public and semi-public sectors: education, health, milling, and mining sectors. In October 1988, the Moroccan government granted pay increases to teachers, who had been promised raises since March 1985. Teachers at the top won huge increments to base salaries spread over 3 years while those at the lower ranks gained much smaller increases to be paid in 2 years. The teachers unions (mainly UGTM, CDT, and independents) protested that the augmentation, back paid to only January 1988, would not even cover inflation since 1985. Moreover, much of the first year's increase went to contributions for the new Hassan II mosque in Casablanca, based on an intensive government campaign for donations that began in summer 1988.

Health workers in the government social security clinics held various work stoppages and strikes in 1988, mainly for nonpayment of salaries due. The dispute was resolved amicably.

The largely UMT-affiliated mill workers also staged several strikes over dismissals and cutbacks in the flour-milling sector. The dispute lingered in various mills around Morocco in early 1989, although it was resolved amicably in the major Ain Sebaa region of Casablanca.

A 3-day strike at the Jerada coal mines in early December within 3 weeks turned into a major combination strike-lockout that ended early in 1989 with widespread government concessions to the CDT-led workers. Although the 20 percent salary demands translated into 5 percent gains, and the 300 percent living allowance requested became a 50 percent increase, the workers won important concessions on transportation, health, and safety.

CONSTITUTIONAL AND LEGAL SAFEGUARDS

The right to organize trade unions, political parties, commercial councils, and professional associations is contained in Article 3 of Morocco's constitution. Despite constitutional protection, unions complain regularly that employers have suspended or dismissed their members for trade union activity with little risk of penalty, although the law entails fines or imprisonment for some labor law violations. In 1988, Morocco's phosphate workers--the largest segment of industrialized workers--were unable to publish an announcement of a representation election and instead had to accept slates of delegates chosen by management. Consequently, only a few workers voted, and unions claimed that a "fair and free exchange of information" had been blocked.

The constitution gives workers the right to strike, but no detailed law exists to define it. Laws governing settlement of disputes set forth mandatory procedures. Disputes are handled by the government on a case-by-case basis. Ministry of Labor delegates provide investigator, mediator, judge, and jury in such cases and often find their resources over-taxed. Only the mining sector is dealt with by the Ministry of Energy and Mines. In 1987, the ILO sponsored a series of seminars in Morocco on the role and importance of labor inspectors, attended by representatives from other Arab and African countries.

Moroccan law outlaws strikes in sectors affecting national security. The Government has used that provision to ban strikes by teachers, among others. During strikes and work protests, workers have also been arrested and prosecuted under criminal statutes that ban picketing and damage to employers' property. The UMT has filed with the ILO several cases alleging infractions of ILO conventions on freedom of bargaining. The ILO Committee on Freedom of Association is

monitoring several cases involving dismissals and prison terms for Moroccan strikers and workers involved in trade union activity.

The Government reported in April 1988 that persons suspended because of participation in a June 1981 work stoppage had been ordered reinstated and that public sector employers had been ordered to normalize the situations of public servants affected by suspension measures. In late April 1988, however, nonunion workers who struck to protest dismissals were removed and imprisoned for trespassing. Union activists often accuse the police and Interior Ministry of interfering on behalf of employers in these and other labor disputes. Thus, while Moroccan law provides for the right of association, enforcement is irregular.

The right to organize and bargain collectively is provided for by Article 14 of the constitution, and Morocco has ratified the ILO convention covering it. Any group of eight workers can organize. Thus, any single factory may contain several independent locals or locals affiliated with more than one labor federation. In both the organization process and during collective bargaining, the law is honored most often in the industrial sector of the economy, because government mechanisms to promote worker-employer negotiations are more easily applied there.

In the informal and underground economies, the law is less well observed and sometimes ignored entirely. In part, the state of the economy, with widespread youth unemployment, hinders protection of the organization and collective bargaining process. Workers understand that replacements are available should they be fired for organizing or bargaining activity. On the other hand, workers face no barriers in making complaints to Moroccan or international authorities. The CDT, for example, requested and received help during the Jerada miners' strike from the International Miners Organization (IMO) in Paris. There is a special economic zone in Tangier, but Moroccan law applies there.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Moroccan trade union federations, anxious to maintain their independence and nonaligned status, avoid formal affiliation with international trade union secretariats or international trade union federations. They do maintain regular and friendly contacts with these groups, however. The UMT has close ties to the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU) and constituent organizations, including the AFL-CIO. In 1988, its leaders visited both the United

States and the Soviet Union, though Moroccan contacts with the communist World Federation of Trade Unions (WFTU) are more limited. African-American Labor Center (AALC) Director Patrick O'Farrell called on the UMT during his visit to Morocco in December 1988. The CDT is more closely tied to leftist international trade secretariats, like the aforementioned IMO, yet it, too, contacts the International Labour Office in Geneva when it perceives unaddressed violations of trade union rights.

On the regional level, the UMT, CDT, and UGTM all previously participated in the Organization of African Trade Union Unity (OATUU), with the UMT taking a lead role in founding the OATUU in the early 1960s. More recently, Moroccan workers have grown disillusioned with over-politicization and lack of independence among OATUU members. They have boycotted OATUU since the acceptance of a delegation from the Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic (SADR), which claims the Moroccan-controlled Western Sahara.

Morocco participates regularly in the Arab Labor Organization (ALO), a tripartite body modelled after the ILO, and was chosen to host the 1989 meeting. The UMT customarily heads the Moroccan delegations to international and regional meetings. The CDT and UGTM have jointly protested this practice but without achieving its modification. The UMT belongs to the International Confederation of Arab Trade Unions (ICATU). Morocco sent a full tripartite delegation to the 1988 ILO Congress in Geneva. In 1987, a Moroccan was elected to the deputy seat for the North Africa sub-region in the ILO Governing Body government group.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

The Bureau of International Labor Affairs of the U.S. Department of Labor can provide further background on labor in Morocco. Greater detail on economic trends in Morocco is found in monthly reports prepared by the American Embassy in Rabat, available through the Embassy or the Departments of State and Commerce. Visitors to Morocco are invited to consult with the Embassy in Rabat and the Consulate General in Casablanca. Both the Labor Officer and the Commercial Service Office are located at the Consulate General in Casablanca.

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